DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 320 438 FL 018 602

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TITLE Ten Principles of Interactive Language Learning and Teaching. NFLC Occasional Papers.
INSTITUTION Johns Hopkins Univ., Washington, DC. National Foreign Language Center.
PUB DATE Feb 89
NOTE 15p.
AVAILABLE FROM Cashier, National Foreign Language Center, 1619 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20036 ($3.00 including postage and handling; checks payable to NFLC).
PUB TYPE Information Analyses (070)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Classroom Communication; Classroom Environment; Creativity; Cultural Awareness; Cultural Context; *Educational Environment; Language Research; *Language Role; Language Tests; *Learning Processes; Second Language Instruction; Second Language Learning; Student Needs; Student Participation; *Student Role; Testing

ABSTRACT

Ten principles based on the interactive nature of language learning and teaching include the following: (1) the student is the language learner; (2) language learning and teaching are shaped by student needs and objectives in particular circumstances; (3) language learning and teaching are based on normal uses of language, with communication of meanings (in oral and written form) to all basic strategies and techniques; (4) classroom relations reflect mutual liking and respect, allowing for both teacher personality and student personality in a non-threatening atmosphere of cooperative learning; (5) basic to language use are knowledge of language and control of language; (6) development of language control proceeds through creativity, which is nurtured by interactive, participatory activities; (7) every possible medium and modality is used to aid learning; (8) testing is an aid to learning; (9) language learning is penetrating another culture: students learn to operate harmoniously within another culture or in contact with another culture; and (10) the real world extends beyond the classroom walls; language learning takes place in and out of the classroom. (MSE)

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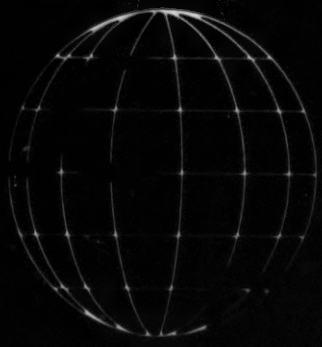

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TEN PRINCIPLES OF INTERACTIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

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February 1989

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A native of Australia, Dr. Rivers pursued her undergraduate work and her M.A. at the University of Melbourne and then earned her Ph.D. at the University of Illinois and her Licence ès Lettres at the University of Montpellier. She has taught English and French in Australia, England, France, India and the United States and has given numerous courses and graduate and summer seminars on applied linguistics and the psychology of language teaching in countries around the world, including Egypt, India, Japan and Thailand. Dr. Rivers has written, co-authored, and edited 14 books on various aspects of foreign language teaching, some in several editions and many of which have been translated. She also has more than 60 journal articles to her credit, and these too have been translated into nine different languages.

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Ten Principles of Interactive Language Learning and Teaching

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"We set out from the assumption that languages are difficult to learn and no less difficult to teach."—H. H. Stern[1]

There is much stale air in language classrooms. Typically, when our class is assembled, we close the door, even lock it against latecomers. There is a big, wide world out there, for whose inhabitants language is a living, pulsating thing—ever changing, ever adapting, and indispensable for human activity. Language is the expression of communal life. Bees have language; cats, dogs, and birds have language. Human language has enabled us to build societies, keep our heritage, and plan for the future. As language teachers we must make our classrooms microcosms of life, with real relationships and purposeful use of language. All our techniques should be directed toward achieving this goal.

As I reflected on these facts about language and language use, I began to think about what to me, and to many other teachers of language, are my basic beliefs about effective language learning and teaching in formal situations. This process led to the elaboration of *ten principles of interactive language learning and teaching*, which we must keep in mind if our classes are to become really communicative.

It has been said that we cannot teach a language—students learn a language. This is very true and is basic to an understanding of the Ten Principles. However, it is time to rehabilitate the term *teaching* so that its definition no longer reflects all that is most authoritarian, imperious, and manipulative in the teacher-student relationship. Teaching is an art and a craft of great antiquity and high honor throughout the world. One may throw fresh light on the mysteries of its influence and success through such paraphrases of "teacher" as "facilitator of learning," but these terms merely describe the process of helping people draw from a deep well of knowledge and understanding to which the teacher already has some access. Language learning and language teaching may be seen as one interactive process: the teacher's work is to foster an environment in which effective language learning may develop. In so doing, the teacher also learns many things. Seneca observed that "while we teach we learn".[2] the teacher is a learner and the learner is a teacher. In the words of an old proverb, "who is too old to learn is too old to teach." It is this interaction of teaching and learning that successful teachers have always understood. It is vividly represented by the use in the French language of one verb, *apprendre*, for both teaching and learning. This interactive use of the terms "teaching" and "learning" is basic to the discussion of the Ten Principles.

PRINCIPLE 1: THE STUDENT IS THE LANGUAGE LEARNER

As early as 1836, W. von Humboldt had concluded that no one can really teach a language; one can only present the conditions under which it will develop spontaneously in the mind in its own way.[3] Similarly, Bronson Alcott, in his *General Maxims* of education (1826-27), maintained that we should "teach nothing that pupils cannot teach themselves."[4] This radical paradox, so applicable to language teaching, is echoed by Gattegno, who observes that in teaching we are nurturing inner criteria in learners that enable them to advance in their learning. "Only self-education," he says, "will lead any learner to the mastery of a skill."[5]

In learning a language, each learner must acquire and consolidate mental representations that are basic to

both understanding a language and expressing oneself through it (whether in speech or writing). We know that people possess even their native language to differing degrees and levels of control and operate differently in the way they use language to serve their purposes. In teaching a language, we are facilitating the individual's acquisition and increasingly fluent use of the language in the best ways we know. (Our ways of proceeding are often intuitive, since our ignorance at this point is great.) We can present clearly and provide opportunities for observing the language in use and for using the language, but only the learners themselves can assimilate the language and make it theirs. This they do in very individualistic ways, or do not do because they lack motivation to do so. For this reason, in an interactive approach, self and peer-to-peer consideration of errors is promoted. The students must realize that they are responsible for their own progress; they will take this responsibility more seriously if they themselves discover and work at their own weaknesses.

Corollary 1: Motivation springs from within; it can be sparked, but not imposed from without

There is a misconception among some teachers that their task is to "motivate" their students. "My students are completely unmotivated," they complain. Corpses and mummies are "completely unmotivated," but every living being is motivated. One student may be motivated to get through each language class hour with the least personal hassle while acquiring the barest minimum of the language being studied; another may be motivated to get high grades by supplying what the teacher seems to be seeking on tests; yet another may be motivated to learn as much as possible of the language to achieve personal goals, which are not always those of the course or the teacher. The teacher's task is to discover the springs of motivation in individual students and channel this motivation, through course content and classroom activities, in the direction of language acquisition. (This approach is discussed further under Principle 2.) Frequently, the intrinsic attraction of the subject matter and the interest aroused by classroom activities will spark motivation to persist with language learning, until some degree of language control satisfying to the learner has been attained.[6]

PRINCIPLE 2: LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING ARE SHAPED BY STUDENT NEEDS AND OBJECTIVES IN PARTICULAR CIRCUMSTANCES

Student needs and objectives are not just personal. They are shaped to a considerable degree by societal pressures and political exigencies. These outside forces exert a largely subconscious influence on what are perceived as individual choices. One such subtle influence is that of career opportunities for the language learner, which are derived from social and political currents. Another is the growing importance in public perception of certain speech communities at a particular point in time: Should our students be learning Japanese, Chinese, or Russian, for instance, instead of German? Or Spanish or Italian instead of French? Is it pointless and time-wasting for English speakers to learn any other language at this particular period in history? Factors such as these influence students' decisions and attitudes.

Language teachers must study the language learners in their classes—their ages, their background, their aspirations, their interests, their goals in language learning, their aptitude for language acquisition in a formal setting—and then design language courses that meet the needs of specific groups. Decisions on course content and orientation will affect the way the language will be presented and the types of materials that will be used.

Corollary 2: Language teaching and course design will be very diverse

The days of a monolithic approach to a language course, imposed on all learners, are well past (or should be). As students and their perceived needs and objectives change, so will the content and techniques of language courses. In some countries, languages are still studied by an elite group of academically oriented students who are preparing for university or college entrance examinations written by academics whose main concern is the students' preparedness to enter their literature courses. There is much more to a language program than this.

In 1951 in Turkey, Buck cited the accusation against active, direct methods of language teaching that students were being taught to speak "comme des perroquets, en negligeant le côté intellectuel de l'enseignement."[7]
This accusation has been repeated elsewhere in relation to other methodologies. Language courses, however, need not lack intellectual content. Language teachers are fortunate in that any kind of content (philosophical, literary, scientific, commercial, aesthetic) is appropriate for a language course, so long as it provides opportunities for contact with and use of the language. Wherever there are enough students for diversification, several parallel courses or sections should be offered, allowing for student selection of content and approach. Should such diversity not be possible at each level for practical reasons, different contents and approaches should be available as the student advances through the language sequence.[8]

Let us be imaginative in devising course content and classroom activities to meet the needs of all comers.

PRINCIPLE 3: LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING ARE BASED ON NORMAL USES OF LANGUAGE, WITH COMMUNICATION OF MEANINGS (IN ORAL AND WRITTEN FORM) BASIC TO ALL STRATEGIES AND TECHNIQUES

Learning to use a language naturally requires much practice in using that language for the normal purposes language serves in everyday life. This is in contradistinction to the artificial types of exercises and drills on which so many languages learners spend their time. A glance at some of the textbooks in common use will reveal that the situation today is not so different from that described by our Danish predecessor, Jespersen, in 1904. "By reading schoolbooks," he says, "one often gets the impression that Frenchmen" (substitute Germans, Russians, Greeks) "must be strictly systematical beings, who one day speak merely in futures, another day in *passé définis*, and who say the most disconnected things only for the sake of being able to use all the persons in the tense which for the time being happens to be the subject for conversation, while they carefully postpone the use of the subjunctive until next year."[9]

In normal interaction, people use language to give and get information; to explain, discuss, and describe; to persuade, dissuade, promise, or refuse; to entertain or to calm the troubled waters of social contact; to reveal or hide feelings and attitudes; to direct others in their undertakings; to learn, teach, solve problems, or create with words. There are many more such uses for language in speech and writing. Suffice it to say that facility in conveying meanings in purposeful acts is the true end of language instruction. The most direct route to this end is to provide many opportunities to use language in communication within and without the classroom from the earliest stages. Students learn to communicate in the form that natural interaction takes for speakers of the target language, which includes acquaintance with the structure of natural discourse within the culture—ways of opening and closing conversational interludes, ways of negotiating meaning and asserting control, of filling pauses, of interrupting or not interrupting, or of navigating so that the conversation is channelled in a direction of interest to the interlocutor.[10] Many of these features of natural interaction are related to the wider expectations within the culture, as discussed under Principle 10.

PRINCIPLE 4: CLASSROOM RELATIONS REFLECT MUTUAL LIKING AND RESPECT, ALLOWING FOR BOTH TEACHER PERSONALITY AND STUDENT PERSONALITY IN A NONTHREATENING ATMOSPHERE OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING

Language teaching and language learning are distinctly different from other school disciplines. Speaking and writing what one really thinks and feels means revealing one's inner self: one's feelings, prejudices, values, and aspirations. Those new to a language can do this only in a roughly approximate, unnuanced way, that is, in a simplified form of language that is perhaps incorrectly formulated, so that they readily give a false impression of who they are or would like people to think they are. This experience can be very inhibiting and ego threatening, if not traumatic; students frequently seek to avoid it. They may also approach other people with lack of subtlety because of their ignorance of certain nuances of the linguistic system, as well as the associated pragmatics and cultural expectations.

In a highly structured methodology like the grammar-translation method or the teacher-directed audiolingual approach, in which students perform according to instructions in a well-planned, emotionally neutral, and predictable sequence, students are protected from such wounds to self-esteem. Once a teacher tries, however, to stimulate interactive activities where more than the student's intellect and memory are involved, then the whole personality of the student comes into play. The language learning becomes, in Curran's terminology, a "unified personality encounter."[11] The student must now "establish," as Leontiev has put it, "an independent *communication activity*, . . . the aim of which is not the immediate satisfaction of concrete practical objectives, but the setting up of contact and mutual understanding, the establishment of interaction with the other members of his (or her) social group . . ., the impact on the knowledge skills, system of social values (convictions), or emotions of another individual or group."[12] There is now place for emotional hurt and embarrassment, even the hostilities that arise from frustration. The teacher must be aware of the many emotional factors in the encounter, which can either depress or exhilarate the student, depending on how they are handled.

An interactive language-learning environment requires that students and teachers, and students among themselves, reach a stage of being comfortable with each other, interested in each other, and respectful of each other's personal temperament-imposed limits. To achieve this equilibrium, teachers must feel comfortable with what they are doing, just as students must be comfortable with what they are expected to do. For students, the emotional threat comes as much from fear of the reaction of peers as the reaction of the teacher, so time should be allowed for peer-with-peer bonding and the development of mutual trust and confidence as students share enjoyable and successful experiences. Teachers need to develop a realistic understanding of their own strengths and weaknesses in interpersonal relations and allow themselves time to get to know their students. Both teachers and students have to be willing to take risks and laugh together when things go wrong. Together they must exorcise the fear of failure (as real for teachers as for students).

To stimulate the interaction that leads to communication via language, both teachers and students must work toward a nonthreatening atmosphere of coopera-

tive learning. Cortese calls this "a sense of place . . . where people feel that they belong, that they are accepted."[13] This does not mean that teachers and students must be effervescently cheerful and amusing at all times. Some teachers, as well as some students, are reserved and take time to unbend with strangers. We like and respect people of very varied personalities, and each has a contribution to make in a cooperative atmosphere. Not all students, nor all teachers, wish to interact with each other at a very deep level, and this attitude must be respected. If this is the case, we involve our students in surface activities—games, simulations, dramatizations, informative activities through which they communicate. For interaction at a deep personal level, students will find their own partners and arrange their own activities. Respect for the privacy of the individual to interact as he or she feels the need or desire is another aspect of cooperative learning. "In cooperative learning, all can succeed because each has something unique to contribute to the enterprise."[14]

PRINCIPLE 5: BASIC TO LANGUAGE USE ARE KNOWLEDGE OF LANGUAGE AND CONTROL OF LANGUAGE

Basic to language use is a mental representation of how language works.

All languages are organized at several levels (the phonological, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic). Once we have learned the outlines of this organization (linguists are still seeking to systematize the details), we have a basis for the expression of an infinity of meanings. Grammatical structure and vocabulary, which are interrelated in their functioning, provide the tools for expressing semantic and pragmatic meaning. As Halliday expresses it: "Reality consists of 'goings-on': of doing, happening, feeling, being. These goings-on are sorted out in the semantic system of the language, and expressed through the grammar of the clause."[15]

A ballet dancer learns basic steps and then can fly. Scientists learn basic principles and can then build new knowledge: experimenting, applying, and thinking creatively. Scientists may not fully understand the principles (research is continuing), and their findings may even cast doubt on some of these or even cause them to restructure the basic framework, but the basic framework is there to be reinterpreted. Linguistic scientists continue to research linguistic structure. They may propose a distinctly new model to explain what is there, but they cannot restructure it; they can only reinterpret the operation of the basic framework or bone structure of the language.

Is the problem for language learning an inadequate or incomplete description of the linguistic structure of the language? People have learned languages for millennia while awaiting discovery and description of the ultimate adequate model, just as people have grown wheat and lit fires without a complete understanding of the processes underlying these phenomena. Language learners need a functional mental model of linguistic structure that works for producing at a basic level speech that communicates meaning, while they await final decisions on the structural model that will describe the actual inner workings of the basic framework.

We cannot use language without a mental representation, no matter how personal and idiosyncratic, of the basic framework or mechanism (I shall call this *knowledge of language*). Teachers can help students acquire an understanding of this basic mechanism that will enable them to use it to comprehend language and produce comprehensible speech. Teachers can also help their students refine this understanding as they progress. Without expert help students will acquire some form of mental representation; with help they will acquire more rapidly one that works for them more satisfactorily. Years of experience with learners of many languages in the Federal Institutes of the Interagency Language Roundtable have shown that, when language learners try to express their meanings freely without a firm structural framework, "*incorrect* communication strategies . . . fossilize prematurely," and "their subsequent modification or ultimate correction is rendered difficult to the point of impossibility, irrespective of the native talent or high motivation that the individual may originally have brought to the task."[16] Yet precise construction is important for fluent expression of meanings that native speakers will understand.

Students acquire this precision of expression through performing rules, not through memorizing or discussing them. They acquire knowledge of the structure of the language actively through use. In this way it becomes part of the learner's mental equipment and can be called upon readily, if more and more without conscious focus, to express personal meaning or to comprehend and recreate the meanings others are trying to convey. It can also be reexamined consciously, should there be a need to reinterpret its potential. As William James observed: "Experience is never yours merely as it comes to you, facts are never mere data, they are data to which you *respond*, your experience is constantly transformed by your deeds."[17]

Sharwood-Smith expresses the necessity for performance practice succinctly when he says: "Whatever the view of the underlying processes in second language learning . . . it is quite clear and uncontroversial to say that most spontaneous performance is attained by dint of practice. In the course of actually performing in the target language, the learner gains the necessary control over its structures such that he or she can use them quickly without reflection."[18] Recent experimentation in Sweden has demonstrated that this performance practice should be through student-initiated utterances,[19] which constitute student response to the data in James's sense and gradually transform the student's mental representation.

Performing rules, then, provides the natural bridge to using these rules in creating personal messages. This I shall call *control of language*. Control of language necessarily includes the ability to understand messages and their full implications in the context, interpreting tone of voice, stress, intonation, and kinesics, as well as actual words and structures. Once students attain some degree of language control, they can use the language "as a medium which will engage their thought, perception, and imagination."[20]

The development of control of language is further discussed under Principle 6.

PRINCIPLE 6: DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE CONTROL PROCEEDS THROUGH CREATIVITY, WHICH IS NURTURED BY INTERACTIVE, PARTICIPATORY ACTIVITIES

The ultimate goal for our students is to be able to use the language they are learning for their own purposes, to express their own meanings; that is, to create their own formulations to express their intentions. That use of language is creative, not imitative, has been emphasized by language teaching theorists, linguists, and psycholinguists for years, yet many language teachers continue to teach as though imitation, repetition, and reconstruction or transformation of models were the be-all and end-all of language learning. In 1966 Chomsky reiterated that "ordinary linguistic behavior characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and new patterns;"[21] he succinctly alluded to this feature as "the creative aspect of normal language use."[22] In 1963 Belyayev maintained that "when using language, one is always dealing with new verbal formulations, irrespective of whether they are created by others or by oneself;"[23] and Blumenthal cites Wundt as stating in 1912 that "the mind of the hearer is just as active in transforming and creating as the mind of the speaker."[24]

Creating new utterances in a language that one only partially controls is not easy. It frequently leads to cognitive overload: learners pause and hesitate (both phenomena of natural native speech); they misuse elements of the new language when they are well aware of the accepted forms; they self-correct or let it be, depending on the situation and the amount of time available (conversations veer off in different directions, depending on the comprehension of the interlocutor); they frequently feel embarrassed or humiliated by their poor showing and may give up their attempts because the effort is too great.

Yet one cannot acquire facility in expressing meanings in a foreign language without much experience in doing just that. Experience in expressing meanings requires interactive situations that stimulate the students' motivation to communicate personal messages;[25] the motivation is strengthened and maintained in situations where there is a low level of ego-threat and frustration (see discussion under Principle 4). Through interactive activities students experience the use of the new language as an important social skill, and success in conveying meanings and evoking a response encourages them to seek more success.

How does a teacher promote interaction? The teacher encourages participatory interactive activities that engage the students' attention so that they become involved, and frequently exhilarated, by activities that make them use the language. I use the word "encourage" because many of these activities may be student initiated. When they are teacher initiated, they should be student-sustained and developed. Purposeful and task-oriented, such activities are frequently conducted through peer-with-peer or small group discussion and elaboration. Some object that mistakes are made in such activities, and this is true, but the experience in creating utterances that carry personal meanings and the confidence it engenders are vital to future autonomous language use. Students are encouraged to learn from their peers, with obtrusive teacher assistance as they feel the need for it.

Activities may be amusing or serious. Games, competitions, skits, simulations, and dramatizations enliven the interaction; problem-solving and information-getting activities encourage persistence and probing, and involve the intellectual skills of the students. Interactive activities may be related to content being studied in the language, whether literary, historical, philosophical, scientific, commercial, or sociological: for example, students may work in groups to gather information, set up experiments, develop alternative denouements for literary works to understand further the author's intent; they may use the case study method for investigating legal or economic aspects of the society that uses the language; they may prepare meals according to the cuisine of a country where the language is spoken, or engage in appropriate social activities of the culture; they may develop plays, radio or television programs, soap operas, or videos; they may write poems that they then discuss with each other, or prepare entertainments for other students, parents, or the community.[26] In these ways students learn by doing.

PRINCIPLE 7: EVERY POSSIBLE MEDIUM AND MODALITY ARE USED TO AID LEARNING

In 1966 Carroll made the point that "the more numerous kinds of association that are made to an item, the better are learning and retention."[27] In communicative interaction, language learners need to draw on all kinds of unpredictable items to express their meaning—items they learned the previous day, even items they learned on the first day they had contact with the language. What they have learned of the language must then be firmly established in memory with many associative triggers so that it becomes readily available, in some cases for recognition in speech or writing and in others for retrieval for active use.

Context is an important factor in recall, as well as a guide to possible and appropriate meanings. Context, it must be remembered, may be linguistic or nonlinguistic; aural, visual, kinesic, olfactory, or tactile; situational; and even emotional. Language teaching or learning that restricts itself to presentation and practice in one modality (for example, the visual in a traditional grammar-translation approach or the aural-oral in a conservative audiolingual approach) does not prepare the learner for the full array of contexts in which items may recur. For these reasons, interactive learning needs to draw on every possible type of experience to reinforce what is being learned. Among these experiences are physical response, aural input, reading materials, written expression, the act of drawing what is meant, the manipulation of objects (in the Pestalozzian tradition), interpretation of pictures, the acting out of scenes, music, song, dance, purposeful tasks (such as making things or preparing and eating them), gestures, facial expressions, and so on. Gattegno emphasizes the importance of breathing and kinesics;[28] Lozanov, the suggestive impact of paintings and music;[29] and Curran calls for the involvement of the "whole person."[30]

At the present time, it is much more possible for the learner to have a well-rounded experience of the language—to see, hear, and live it in all kinds of ways. Teachers are no longer limited to the book, the chalkboard, their own vocal apparatus, an occasional picture or chart, and a few objects to be handled to bring a sense of reality and a broader context to the elements of the language and how they combine to create meanings. First came the disc, then radio, film, the telephone, television, magnetic tape, videocassettes, ready availability of foreign-language newspapers and magazines, and now audio and visual material beamed by satellite, and computer software that may be integrated with video-disc. Each new medium has presented additional opportunities for teachers to provide multiple associations with language as used by native speakers and insights into their ways of thinking and reacting, as well as opportunities for students to view and hear themselves as they attempt to use the language in authentic ways.

In 1921 Palmer, that most enduring of methodologists, advocated that "we select judiciously and without prejudice all that is likely to help us in our work." He called this "the multiple line of approach."[31] Now is the time for teachers to investigate, experiment, and use judiciously the many possibilities for increasing language impact for the learner and for enabling their students to interact with speakers of the language in actuality or vicariously, in order to increase their motivation to communicate. Now even autodidacts and students far from their teachers (now called distance learners) can have access to many of the same advantages for language contact as those in more formal situations.

All is not sunshine and light in language-learning land, however. Much that is available ostensibly to "help us in our work" does not promote or encourage the interaction that leads to communication through language. A great deal of attention, time, and energy need to be devoted to what passes over the airwaves or is stored on disc, film, or cassette. "Garbage in, garbage out" is still as true as it ever was. Teachers need to reflect very carefully on how to use this almost mesmerizing quantity of materials so as to insure that it increases opportunities for learning and improves quality of learning. For us all, the watchword is *cavete* ("y'all watch out now")!

PRINCIPLE 8: TESTING IS AN AID TO LEARNING

Testing has so often been punitive. Students become very nervous about tests, which as often as not seek to uncover what students do not know or cannot immediately recall, rather than providing them with an opportunity to demonstrate to the examiners and themselves what they can do with the language. "Chercher la petite bête" is a very illuminating expression in French that can well be applied to the attitude of test writers who concentrate on the minutiae of the language rather than the broader aspects of comprehensible and acceptable language use. (Why otherwise do teachers need answer keys to help them correct tests?)

First of all, then, tests should concentrate on enabling students to demonstrate what they can do with whatever level of language they possess. In this way, the test is a guide to the student, as well as the teacher, as to what has really been assimilated so that it is available for some form of realistic use.[32] The test becomes an aid to learning, not an intentionally tricky hurdle.

Next, the test itself should be a learning experience that is part of the ongoing course. If the test acts as a guide to the student (and the teacher), then it cannot be final. The student goes on to relearn and consolidate what has been found to be lacking or misunderstood, and then retests (not "is retested") to see how the learning is progressing. Opportunities should be provided for students to relearn and then retake tests to inform themselves, as well as the teacher, as to how well they now understand or can use the language.[33] In brief, the test stimulates further learning.

That the test should reflect the objectives of the course (which, as discussed in Principle 2, already reflect the objectives of the student) cannot be overemphasized. For too long we have taught and students have learned one thing, while the test has concentrated on another, because we preferred a kind of test that was easy to prepare and correct, thus putting large groups through the same wringer for our own convenience. When this is not the case, it is frequently because the form of the test is already familiar to teacher and students; accordingly the course is designed to enable the students to perform well on the test, despite their linguistic needs or inclinations. Expedience is thus put before educational objectives.

Finally, the test should be interesting. Students should enjoy taking the test. If thought is given to creating a test that involves students in working out interesting problems, comprehending and reacting to stimulating ideas, expressing their own ideas (or at least producing original utterances), and taking the initiative in some way related to the interactional nature of the preceding learning, then the test will be motivational and a means of growth for the students. This approach to testing will reduce the emotional and stressful element that discriminates against students of certain temperaments when faced with the once-for-all, future-determining character of much present-day testing.

Can student-centered testing be conducted for large groups (across sections in large institutions, across a number of schools in a local area, or for all students of a certain level in national examinations)? A more appropriate question would be: is there genuine educational value in wide-scale impersonal testing?

PRINCIPLE 9: LANGUAGE LEARNING IS PENETRATING ANOTHER CULTURE; STUDENTS LEARN TO OPERATE HARMONIOUSLY WITHIN IT OR IN CONTACT WITH IT

Language and the cultural values, reactions, and expectations of speakers of that language are subtly melded. Gattegno brings this out when he says that "Only when one is really imbued with the literature or soaked in the environment of the people using the language can one express oneself in speech or writing as a native would. It is the spirit of a language that has to get hold of one's mind."[34] Not even consciously realized by the culture-bearers themselves, these values, expectations, and presuppositions frequently pass unperceived by the learners of the language, who bumble and fumble their way through relations and contacts with native speakers, quite unaware of their cultural faux pas and unintentional offensiveness. Plunged into the culture, they suffer from depressing shock and stress and confidence-destroying frustrations that affect their ability to interact harmoniously with those with whom they come in contact. Frequently they end up loving the language but hating its users. As Cortese expresses it, "If the social compact requires the observation of pretty, polite techniques for the avoidance of conflict" (these are frequently taught to the learner), "it is also, at a deeper level, built on negotiation of and respect for individual values and traits. It is to this level that a formative language learning process must reach, both in the sense of helping the individual to shape his [or her] own values and in the sense of comprehending different value orientations." This type of learning, she says, distinguishes "production performance" from the mere "imitation of politeness norms."[35]

While seeking to understand from her own experiences what brought about ease of interaction in new social and cultural situations, Robinson developed four principles:

> 1. On a one-to-one basis, the differences between people divided them, the commonalities brought them together.
> 2. Understanding, in the sense of smooth interaction, was probably least affected by awareness of how people were going to act, or the ability to anticipate culturally different events. Understanding happened through all modes of perception [physiological, emotional, kinesthetic, tactile, as well as cognitive].
> 3. . . . The new cultural experiences were not 'add-ons'. They seemed to be interpreted through and integrated with the learner's previous experience.
> 4. Understanding—getting over the barriers to communication— . . . took time."[36]

To help students operate harmoniously within another language and culture we need more than talk about cultural differences. Bringing out cultural similarities combats stereotypes more effectively than focusing on differences.[37] We develop ability to interact initially with those who are linguistically and culturally different by teaching social amenities that oil wheels and open doors of acceptance (Cortese's pretty politenesses), but these merely provide opportunities to advance further in understanding. As we proceed, we need to understand culturally diverse interaction styles[38] and, in many cases, adopt them ourselves, if our progress is not to be arrested. We need to learn different pragmatic routines, ways of opening and closing conversations, taking turns, and so on.

As we come into contact with the other culture through these outer doors, we begin to understand patterns of beliefs and behavior and recognize that what may appear to be exotic, discrete acts or ways of expressing oneself are in fact manifestations of societal features (such as recognition of a hierarchy of respect; rejection of discriminatory distinctions; dislike of vanity, bombast, or servility; deep-seated needs for individualistic expression or, contrariwise, a tendency to take refuge in group conformity). These reactions, even in the form of verbal formulas, cannot be learned piecemeal; they need to be acquired in culturally probable situations. They may be observed in films, plays, novels, soap operas, or radio talk shows, as well as in newspapers or magazines, when actually living and working with native speakers is not possible. Interactive practice is supplied through the acting out of problem situations within the culture. Students work out possible, culturally appropriate solutions as they are interacting, facing up to the unpredictable as native speakers might do. Later discussion brings out areas of cultural understanding and misunderstanding that surfaced during the interaction.[39]

Through attempting to understand the cultural-linguistic behavior of others, we come to understand our own value systems and culture-laden language use. As a result, we emerge enriched as we broaden our experience of human ways of thinking and behaving; we develop a tolerance for difference, even within apparent similarity; and we learn to interact harmoniously and comfortably

with others from different backgrounds, within our own and other societies, without confusion of our own sense of identity.

Such a result does not come of itself. It requires hard work, hard thinking, and persistence on the part of both teacher and learner.

PRINCIPLE 10: THE REAL WORLD EXTENDS BEYOND THE CLASSROOM WALLS; LANGUAGE LEARNING TAKES PLACE IN AND OUT OF THE CLASSROOM

"Language is a natural function of human association," according to Dewey.[40] Consequently, the more opportunities for human association with speakers of the language, presumably the more potential for growth in control of language for normal uses and spontaneous expression. Second-language teachers and bilingual teachers with interactive aims have already been creating opportunities to strengthen language learning through arranging contacts between second-language learners and the native-speaker community surrounding them. They arrange for host families to invite foreign students for holidays and family festivities. They set up interview assignments that help their students overcome their diffidence and nervousness so that they can talk with native speakers in a purposeful way. They send students out to discuss prices and quality of goods in shops or to use the telephone to inquire about a local sports club or the availability of videocassettes for rental. They take them to local restaurants, the bank, or the post office. They request reports on films, television shows, or radio broadcasts (ranging from commercials or news hours to sitcoms or soap operas). They encourage their students from overseas to give talks to local service clubs or in schools. This kind of immersion in the "real world" has generally been considered impossible for foreign-language learners, who have remained inside their classrooms behind closed doors—taking an occasional peek at the passing crowd if the windows are not placed too high. Need this continue to be the situation? As the world opens up through travel, technology, and shared interests, the advantages second-language learners can enjoy are being taken more and more seriously as options for all language learners.

In most communities, a little searching will lead to the discovery of some native speakers (expatriates, spouses, exchange students, business executives and their families, or newly arrived immigrants) in the environs. Where there has been immigration, another source is the retirement community or old people's home. Sometimes these older speakers of the language are isolated and lonely and are reverting gradually to monolingualism. The "Adopt a Grannie" idea, which has proved so successful in social work, might be adopted here, as well as the fostering of phone friendships with elderly speakers of the language or shut-ins. Sometimes students can help monolingual speakers of the language with form-filling or information.

In Clyne's book on second-language classes in Victorian schools, Kipp reports that motivation to speak the language being learned was dampened among students by the lack of a "sizeable native [second-language] speaking peer group either inside or outside the school environment." Where there was a local community of speakers of the language, second-language learners enjoyed contacts that were readily available to them but did not actively search for further language speech partners.[41] These facts emphasize the need for teacher's leadership in assigning projects that will be integrated into classwork, so that students enjoy a sense of achievement after all their effort. Students whose motivation is stimulated by a language-related assignment or group project will ferret out opportunities to use the language that the teacher did not dream were available. But there must be some incentive, such as a project to research some subject (an elderly person's early education, a migrant's memories of "old country" customs) that will be presented to the class, be reported in the school or local newspaper, or form part of a group writing project on unusual features of the local community for eventual dissemination within and beyond the school. Where there are no such resources, the community is contacted from a distance—through pen pals, tape pals, twinned classrooms, sister city projects, a commercial campaign ("France" or "Italy in Our-Town" at the department store), or language camps where teachers from different schools become the "native speakers" for the weekend. Opportunities now extend to videos and satellite broadcasts. We must seize every imaginable opportunity for taking the language (and its learners) out of the classroom, vicariously or in reality.

Once students see the advantages and experience the satisfactions of undertaking these kinds of projects, they will think of others of their own. Like barbecues, students need a little "starter."

Each of these principles expresses a philosophical or psychological position or attitude. We each teach according to firmly held attitudes of this kind. Ours may not be explicit, even to ourselves; we may not have stopped to think what they are, but, if challenged or confronted with other views, we respond in a way that reveals "where we are coming from," to use a contemporary expression. I hope that this exposition and explication of my deeply held and cherished positions may bestir other teachers to a deeper consideration of their own, and perhaps to a reexamination of some of them in the light of the needs of our language teachers, who must remain our preeminent preoccupation.

APPENDIX:
Ten Principles of Interactive Language Learning and Teaching

1. The student is the language learner.

   Corollary 1: Motivation springs from within; it can be sparked but not imposed from without.

2. Language learning and teaching are shaped by student needs and objectives in particular circumstances.

   Corollary 2: Language teaching and course design will be very diverse.

3. Language learning and teaching are based on normal uses of language, with communication of meanings in oral or written form basic to all strategies and techniques.

4. Classroom relations reflect mutual liking and respect, allowing for both teacher personality and student personality in a nonthreatening atmosphere of cooperative learning.

5. Basic to language use are knowledge of language and control of language.

6. Development of language control proceeds through creativity, which is nurtured by interactive, participatory activities.

7. Every possible medium and modality are used to aid learning.

8. Testing is an aid to learning.

9. Language learning is penetrating another culture: students learn to operate harmoniously within it or in contact with it.

10. The real world extends beyond the classroom walls; language learning takes place in and out of the classroom.

NOTES:

1. H.H. Stern, *Fundamentals of Language Teaching* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1983), p. 1.

2. Seneca, *Ad Lucilium*, V, vii.

3. W. von Humboldt, *Uber die Verschiedenheit des Menschlichen Sprachbaues* (Berlin, 1836), as cited by N. Chomsky in *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1965), p. 51.

4. A. Bronson Alcott, *General Maxims*, in the *Alcott Journals*, 1826-27, Maxim XXXIV. This was also the approach of Maria Montessori.

5. C. Gattegno, *Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools: the Silent Way*, 2d ed. (New York: Educational Solutions, 1972), pp. 31-32.

6. This subject is considered in greater detail in "Motivating through Classroom Techniques," in W.M. Rivers, *Speaking in Many Tongues: Essays in Foreign-Language Teaching*, 3d ed. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1983), pp. 108-19.

7. E. Buck, *L'enseignement du francais: une méthodologie* (Istanbul: "La Turquie Moderne" Basimevi, 1951), p. 30.

8. For possibilities for different course orientations at the undergraduate level, see "The Revolution Now: Revitalizing the University Language Departments," in Rivers, *Speaking in Many Tongues*, pp. 166-82.

9. O. Jespersen, *How to Teach a Foreign Language* (London: George Allen and Unwin, 1961), pp. 17-18. First published in 1904.

10. See also R. L. Allwright, "The Importance of Interaction in Classroom Language Learning," *Applied Linguistics* 5 (1984): 156-71.

11. C. A. Curran, *Counseling-Learning in Second Languages* (Apple River, Ill.: Apple River Press, 1976), p. 41.

12. A. A. Leontiev, Psychology and the Language Learning Process (Oxford: Pergamon, 1981), p. 23. Italics in the original.

13. G. Cortese, "Interaction in the FL Classroom: From Reactive to Proactive Experience of Language," *System* 15, 1(1987): 37.

14. "Individualized Instruction and Cooperative Learning: Some Theoretical Considerations," in W. M. Rivers, *Communicating Naturally in a Second Language: Theory and Practice in Language Teaching* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1983), p. 78.

15. M. A. K. Halliday, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* (London: Edward Arnold, 1985), p. 101.

16. T. V. Higgs and R. Clifford, "The Push Toward Communication," in T. V. Higgs, ed., *Curriculum, Competence, and the Foreign Language Teacher* (Skokie, Ill.: National Textbook Co., 1982), p. 74. Italics in the original.

17. W. James, *Talks to Teachers*, quoted in H. Rugg, *Foundations for American Education* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1947), p. 91. Italics in the original.

18. M. Sharwood-Smith, "Consciousness-raising and the Second Language Learner," *Applied Linguistics* 2 (1981): 159-69.

19. For an experimental validation of this viewpoint, see E. Ericsson, *Foreign Language Teaching from the Point of View of Certain Student Activities*, Göteborg Studies in Educational Sciences 59 (Göteborg: Acta Universitatis Gothoburgensis, 1986).

20. Leontiev (1981), p. 65.

21. N. Chomsky, "Linguistic Theory," in R. G. Mead, Jr., ed., *Language Teaching: Broader Contexts* (Middlebury, Vt.: Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1966), p. 44.

22. N. Chomsky, *Topics in the Theory of Generative Grammar* (The Hague: Mouton, 1966), p. 11.

23. B. V. Belyayev, *The Psychology of Teaching Foreign Languages*, fr. R. F. Hingley (Oxford: Pergamon, 1963), p. 29. Originally published in Russian in 1959. Leontiev (1981) also states that "all methodological procedures... should endeavor to stimulate creative activity in the learner and reduce to a minimum all mechanical and thoughtless operations" (p. 66).

24. A. L. Blumenthal, *Language and Psychology. Historical Aspects of Psycholinguistics* (New York: Wiley, 1970), p. 37, in a discussion of the work of Wilhelm Wundt.

25. For further discussion of interaction as an essential prerequisite for communication through language, see W. M. Rivers, "Interaction: the Key to Communication," in R. Steele, ed., *Proceedings of the 8th International Congress of AILA*, Sydney, Australia, 1987 (in press).

26. Many suggestions for participatory interactive activities may be found in W. M. Rivers, ed., *Interactive Language Teaching* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1987).

27. J. B. Carroll, "The Contributions of Psychological Theory and Educational Research to the Teaching of Foreign Languages," in A. Valdman, ed., *Trends in Language Teaching* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966), p. 105.

28. C. Gattegno, *Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools: The Silent Way*, 2d ed. (New York: Educational Solutions, 1972). Gattegno considers breathing and kinesics, as well as the conscious application of the intellect, to be of great importance.

29. G. Lozanov's Suggestopaedia, as discussed in S. Ostrander and L. Schroeder, *Psychic Discoveries Behind the Iron Curtain* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970).

30. Curran (1976).

31. H. E. Palmer, *The Principles of Language-Study* (London: Harrap, 1921, reprinted Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1964). The quotations are from p. 141 of the reprinted edition.

32. For a fuller discussion of proficiency-oriented testing, see W. M. Rivers, *Teaching French: A Practical Guide*, chap. 10: *Testing and Assessment*; and similar chapters in Rivers et al., *Teaching German: A Practical Guide*, and *Teaching Spanish: A Practical Guide* (Lincolnwood, Ill.: National Textbook Co., 1988); and W. M. Rivers and M. Nahir, *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of Hebrew* (Tel Aviv: University Publishing Projects, 1988).

33. For suggestions on how to arrange the retaking of tests, see Rivers (1988) and Rivers et al. (1988), chap. 10.

34. Gattegno (1972), p. 20.

35. Cortese (1987), p. 32.

36. G. L. N. Robinson, *Crosscultural Understanding: Processes and Approaches for Foreign Language, English as a Second Language and Bilingual Educators* (New York and Oxford: Pergamon, 1985), pp. 3-5.

37. Ibid., p. 71.

38. See also G. L. N. Robinson, "Culturally Diverse Speech Styles," in Rivers, ed. (1987), pp. 141-54.

39. Proposals of this type are made by R. C. Scarcella, "Socio-drama for Social Interaction," *TESOL Quarterly* 12 (1978): 41-46; and R. J. DePietro, *Strategic Interaction: Learning Languages Through Scenarios* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1987). Further ideas for bringing students to awareness of another culture are found in W. M. Rivers, *Teaching Foreign-Language Skills*, 2d ed. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1981), chap. 11.

40. J. Dewey, *Experiences in Nature* (Chicago, Ill.: Open Court, 1925), p. 179.

41. S. Kipp, "Student Reaction," chap. 8 in M. Clyne, ed., *An Early Start: Second Language at Primary School* (Melbourne, Australia: River Seine Publications, 1986), pp. 104-105.

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